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distinguishes it from all the other subordinate parts, that are only added to enrich the harmony, is, that if retrenched, the piece will be mutilated. Those who perform the ripieno parts, may stop whenever they please, and the piece nevertheless will go on; but the performer to whom an obligato part is assigned, cannot stop a moment without being missed.

OBLIGEE, in *Law*, is the party to whom an obligation, or bond is made.

OBLIGOR, the party who enters into or executes an obligation, or bond.

OBLIQUATION, in *Catoptrics*. *Cathetus of obliquation* is a right line drawn perpendicular to a mirror, in the point of incidence, or reflection of a ray. See **CATHETUS**.

OBLIQUE, in *Geometry*, something aslant, indirect, or that deviates from the perpendicular.

OBLIQUE Angle. See **ANGLE**.

OBLIQUE-Angled Triangle, is that whose angles are oblique; i. e. either obtuse, or acute.

OBLIQUE Arches. Whenever high roads run oblique to the course of any river, rivulet, drain, or canal, necessary to be passed over by a bridge, the direction of the *former* is generally varied so as to be rectangular to the course of the *latter*; unless in small streams, over which, when their course is not made to suit the road, there are several instances of the construction of what are usually termed *skew-bridges*. These, with the exceptions which will be afterwards mentioned, have been built in the usual manner of laying each course of stones or bricks of the arch parallel to the line of the abutment, and beveling off their ends, on each exterior face of the arch, in a line correspondent with the intended direction of the road over the bridge, as shewn in fig. 1. In this figure it is obvious, that so far as one abutment of the bridge extends beyond the rectangular line from the extremity of the other, such a portion of arch, *viz.* $a b$, has no support from the opposite abutment, unless what may be derived from the interlapping or breaking joint of the bricks or stones composing the arch; and from the goodness of the mortar, tending to cement them into one mass: therefore, accordingly as these circumstances have operated, and also in proportion to the smallness of the arch, in which the parapet covers a larger ratio of the unsupported part of it, the skew-bridges thus built have stood more or less firm, with an obliquity of 10° to 15° from a rectangle with the abutment; and in many instances, that portion of the arch has cracked or given way. These circumstances have prevented cautious builders from adopting this method; and induced them, in a few instances, to build the arch square to its abutments, and run the parapets oblique, to coincide with the line of road; leaving alternate triangles of the arch on the outside, which has a disagreeable appearance, and has seldom been used; therefore, in general, unless the courses of streams or canals were made rectangular to the road, the line of the latter has been altered so as to admit of a direct passage over the water, which upon high roads, when not curved for a considerable distance, is inconvenient if not dangerous; and particularly so to travellers in the night time; from which cause the skew-bridges described were, with all their imperfections, occasionally had recourse to; and the writer of this article has never heard of any alteration in their form prior to the year 1787. At this time he had the direction of the county of Kildare canal, a branch from the Grand Canal of Ireland to the town of Naas.

In the course of conducting the work, several of the directors of that canal were anxious to have the line of the roads unvaried; therefore our author was led to consider whether the usual imperfect method could not be set aside, by the substi-

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tution of one on sound principles; and it then occurred that its leading feature must be, that the joints of the voissoirs, whether of brick or stone, should be rectangular with the face of the oblique arch, in place of parallel with its abutment; and, consequently, the bridges over the county of Kildare canal were made to suit the line of road, although the obliquity of one of them was carried to an extent beyond what he deemed eligible in practice, as will appear from the observations made on Finlay bridge, near the town of Naas, which deviated 51° from a rectangle with the canal, and consequently formed the acute angle of 39° with its abutments. Its span, in that oblique direction, was 25 feet, and its pitch 5 feet 6 inches, or nearly $\frac{2}{9}$ ths of its span. The plan of this bridge is given in fig. 2, and in fig. 3. the elevation of its arch, more to shew the extent to which it has been carried than to recommend its propriety; principally because of the difficulty of forming the voissoirs of the impost course; and also, because to retain the same breadth of roadway, the bridge must be enlarged as the secant of the angle of obliquity is to radius, *viz.* as $a b$ to $a c$, which in the present instance is as 159° to 100° ; likewise, for general purposes, one breast-wall on each side must be considerably extended to coincide with its opposite one, or nearly so; also, the impost course must be serrated, as shewn in the explanation of fig. 8; and as the lines, in which the beds of the voissoirs run, are obviously spiral lines, it follows that the soffit of each stone must be curved in that direction, and likewise it must be twisted in its sommering, which, although not insuperable difficulties, are so in such a degree, as, combined with the indented form of the impost, to render it advisable to use bricks, both for the impost and arch, or at most to be contented with the use of stone only for the quoins and their necessary imposts, in the forming of which intelligent stone-cutters will be requisite, as will appear from fig. 3, where a part both of the intrados and extrados of the arch is shewn as viewed from an infinite distance, not being reduced in perspective. It is there apparent that the head of each voissoir on that side of the arch where its face forms an acute angle with its abutment, must make an obtuse angle with its soffit, decreasing in their approach to the crown of the arch, and thenceforward becoming acute, and increasing as they advance to the other impost, where the face of the arch forms an obtuse angle with its abutment; therefore the different sides of the same voissoir must form different angles of elevation or depression from the rectangle with its head.

A geometric mode of forming each voissoir would be complicated, as will appear from the following diagrams, *viz.* let the lines $a b$, $b d$, and $d c$, in the diagram, fig. 4, include a portion of the space to be covered by the arch, $a b$ and $c d$ being the lines of its abutments: then let the distance intercepted between $d b$, and its parallel line $x y$, which likewise extends between the abutments, express the extent to be covered by any given number of the voissoirs forming that portion of the soffit, suppose every alternate one:—let the circular arcs raised upon each of these lines express the elevation of the arch at each place respectively; u and v will then shew the crowns of their soffits. The line $t t$, drawn at right angles with the face of the arch, and with its respective extremities equidistant from the points u and v , will represent a joint on the soffit, which must necessarily be horizontal at its extremities; because equidistant from the crown of each arc, although on alternate sides; then if equal spaces on each side of the point, t , be set off on each respective arc, it will shew upon each where the joints of the same voissoirs will coincide. Four of these spaces in the

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arc $d u b$, which represents the front of the arch, reach from t to d , *viz.* to the abutment on the side, where it forms an obtuse angle with that front, whilst the same number of similar spaces *in the like direction* extend only from t to 4 , in the arc $x v y$, representing the internal end or extreme extent of the voissoirs seen on the face of the arch. The same circumstances are reversed on the side where the front forms an acute angle with the abutment, as shewn by the similar references on the other side of $t t$: consequently the joint 4 , in front of the arch, will fall into the impost at y on the rear line. The radiating lines rising above each arc, drawn from their respective centres h and g , shew the twist or different sommering lines at each extremity of the same joint: the difference of these divergencies would be more clearly seen by exhibiting similar lines upon the arc $r v s$, which represents that of $x v y$, upon the same level as the front arc $d u b$, preserving an equal lateral distance between them, which as it may be easily conceived is left undone, because they would interfere with the lines requisite for the further explanation of the subject. The points, r and s , upon the last described arc, correspond with x and y upon that for which it is substituted, every remaining letter or figure of reference being the same in both.

The vertical spaces on the acute side of the arch intercepted between $4 s$, $3 3$, &c. until they become horizontal at t , shew the proportionate depression of the soffit of the joints they represent; and on the other side, d to 4 , on the lower dotted arc; $3 3$, &c. shew the rise on each voissoir abutting on these points. The horizontal base between the extremities of each joint is shewn by the lines $d n$, $x m$, $k k$, &c. which extend between the chords $d b$ and $x y$, from the points found by the intersection of the ordinates from the correspondent numbers of their respective curves. The horizontal base, $k k$, is the only one that is rectangular to the chord of the arc; all the other bases diverging towards that abutment which forms an obtuse angle with the arch, and increasing towards the haunches. At the first view of the diagram they appear to diverge both ways, but on investigation it will be seen that the letter n , on the side of the acute angle, has reference to the front arc, and on the other side refers to that representing the inner end of each joint. From these data we shall proceed to shew the longitudinal section or side elevation of a voissoir at $t t$, and other parts of the arch: $k k$, fig. 5, correspondent with $k k$, fig. 4. but on a larger scale, express the base of the voissoir, and $k r$, its height of face, or its width of bed, which latter may be assumed to be similar in the others, *viz.* $d i$, fig. 6. and $4 i$, fig. 7. The rise of the curve in the soffit between k and k , must obviously be equal to the difference between the ordinates $t k$ and $u e$, fig. 4, because the crown of the arch shewn by the line $v u$, must be intersected at half-way between t , t , the extremes of the voissoir; one end of the stone being on that side of the crown descending to the left, and the other extremity equidistant on the side descending to the right. The breast-wall is shewn rising rectangular from this voissoir. Fig. 6. upon the principles already explained, shews on the side where the front line of the arch makes an obtuse angle with its abutment, the voissoir rising from the springing point at d to 4 , on the posterior arc which corresponds with its inner extremity; and fig. 7. exhibits, on the side where the front is acute with its abutment, the bed of a voissoir commencing at 4 , on the front arc $d u b$, and descending to the abutment at s , on the arc representing the other extremity. By these diagrams it appears, that under equal widths of bed the space between the intrados and extrados increases upon the face of the arch as the haunches

of the arch are approached: therefore the rough blocks for the voissoirs must be increased in their breadth of face to allow for the further divergency of their sommering lines, arising from their height of face, or difference between intrados and extrados, being increased as the secants of their angles of deviation from a rectangle with a line between each extremity of their soffit: *viz.* as $d z$ is to $d i$, fig. 6, or $4 r$ to $4 i$ in fig. 7. And if the twist of the sommering lines be attended to, the long voissoirs must have a still greater width of block between their beds than the short ones: therefore, previously to the fitting each stone to its individual place, as the work advances nothing more can easily be done than giving due allowance to the first of these variations, which will be sufficient in practice where the arch, excepting its quoins, is formed of brick; because the facility of making the brick sheeting break joint with the stone voissoirs of the face, will render it unnecessary to twist the beds of the latter, and with the precaution mentioned, and the necessary aid of a bevel rule with a moveable joint, and its long arm formed of short jointed links to suit the curve of the soffit, in the direction of each stone and towards the haunches on each joint of it, the operations of fitting each voissoir to its place will not be difficult.

Fig. 6. sufficiently shews the danger of the breast or face-wall sliding outwards on the acute angles of the soffit; therefore, when the obliquity of the arch is carried near to that of Finlay bridge, which these diagrams represent, either the breast-wall should be curved, where it forms an obtuse angle with the abutment, or the voissoir should have offsets, which may be of the breadth of a brick, if the wall be built of that material, to form a stop to its slipping forward, as shewn by the dotted lines under it in fig. 6.

We shall now point out some anomalies from the leading principle, which are necessary to be adverted to, for a due knowledge of the mode of constructing oblique bridges.

A semicircular arch obviously covers a semi-cylinder; and a lesser portion of the arc of a circle will consequently cover a similar portion of it. If it be supposed, in either instance, that the cylindric segment, lying horizontally on its plane, with its axis in the direction of its abutments, is longer than necessary for the road-way over it, in any given oblique direction; we then, to obtain an oblique arch, have only to conceive the convex face of the cylindric segment to be cut down between two parallel vertical planes, in the direction required. But this arch, from the nature of cylindric sections, will be elliptic; which is not so eligible in practice, because of its quicker rise at the haunches of the arch, the inconveniences of which have already been explained; and they obviously militate not only against the elliptic form, but also any near approach to a semicircle.

We have observed that the leading principle of these oblique arches is, that each course of voissoir should run rectangular to the face of the arch. This, however, must be taken in a limited sense; because if the sheeting, or bed of the arch, were unfolded, or laid into a plane, its faces on the two extremities, bounding the passage over it, would not be straight lines parallel to each other, like the parapet walls; but would form two curved lines, each convex where the line of the arch is acute with the abutment, and concave when it approaches the other side where the intercepted angle is obtuse. This irregularity necessarily arises from the circumstance, that each front line of the sheeting, $m g p$, and $n b q$, fig. 8, in its course from the crown of the arch, in a direction oblique to $g b$, (the axis of the vault transverse to the abutments,) must not, in its spiral gyration along the surface of the cylindric segment on each side of

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$g\ h$, advance through equal ratios of the axis, in equal portions of the arc, but simply as the respective horizontal bases of these portions: therefore its deviation from a line rectangular with the axis becomes progressively less in its approach to each abutment.

The greater or less curvature of the two faces of the arch, when drawn out as a plane, must depend on the greater or less pitch of the arch, as shewn in *fig. 8*; where $r\ s$ and $t\ d$ are the abutments of the bridge, and, consequently, $r\ s\ d\ t$ the base of the arch. The angle of obliquity is here 51° , as in the preceding diagram: the line $g\ h$ passes along the crown of it; and the curved lines, $g\ m$ and $h\ n$, terminated by the line $m\ n$, exhibit half the arch of Finlay bridge, drawn out as a horizontal plane; $m\ n$ and $t\ d$ being parallel to, and rectangular from each other; and their distances from the crown of the arch, $g\ h$, in their respective lines, $g\ m$, $h\ n$, and $g\ t$, $h\ d$, being in one the length of the semi-arc, and the other that of its base. On the other side of the line $g\ h$, the curved lines, $g\ p$ and $h\ q$, connected by the right line $p\ q$, shew the form of half a semicircular arch of the same base, drawn out into a plane. In both exhibitions, it is clear that lines drawn perpendicular to different parts of the face of the arch, to serve as guide-lines to the joints of the soffit, would in one part converge to each other, and form triangles; and in the other part, where the face-line extended on a plane is concave, would diverge, so as, in both instances, to occasion great irregularity and difficulty in closing of the arch; which actually takes place in practice, unless due attention be paid to its leading principles, which have been pointed out in the explanation of *fig. 4*, so far as that diagram enabled them to be; which, although not to the extent requisite for the construction of the arch, may be made perfectly comprehensible to any practical man, by attention to the following instructions, *viz.* after the centres, which are placed parallel to the face of the arch, and diagonally to its abutment, are put up, and covered with their plank-sheeting, carefully set off their bounding-lines, $m\ p$ and $q\ n$, as in any other arch; so that every part of these face-lines shall be perpendicular to, or directly under, a horizontal line stretched from r to t , or from s to d , upon the level of the crown of the arch. Then, equidistant from each abutment, *viz.* along the crown of the arch, strike the line $g\ h$, which will of course be a straight line. Divide it into any given number of equal parts: if very oblique, ten or twelve may be sufficient; and in arches of small obliquity, a few divisions will do. The present diagram (*fig. 8.*) is more oblique than will probably be adopted; but the scale being minute, the line $g\ h$ is divided into only six parts, as the purpose of explanation will be equally well attained.

The figures 1 , 2 , 3 , &c. in succession from h to g , shew the divisions on that line; and a , b , c , &c. exhibit correspondent spaces close to each abutment. These divisions being made, set out, on the sheeting, so many parallel lines to the outer faces, $m\ g\ p$, and $n\ h\ q$, *viz.* $a\ i\ a$, $b\ z\ b$, &c.: $k\ i$ represents a line of joint near the crown of the arch, and rectangular to its face; which commencing at the distance of $h\ k$, will intersect $h\ g$, the line of the crown, at the distance of $h\ i$, from the face of the arch; and will represent half the line, $t\ t$, in diagram, *fig. 4*.

By the theory laid down for these arches, the joints on their soffit are to run parallel to each other; or rather they are to intersect equal portions of parallel equidistant arcs, standing in a line oblique to their common axis. This end may obviously be obtained, by setting off on each face of the arch, and on each of the parallel equidistant lines, $a\ i\ a$, $b\ z\ b$, &c. spaces similar to $h\ k$, in succession after each

other from the points $h\ 1$, 2 , 3 , 4 , 5 , and g , towards each abutment; and then to mark upon the sheeting strong lines, to direct the course of the joints, such as shewn by $k\ i$, $i\ u$, $u\ v$, &c. which will form a polygonic curve, more or less approaching to a regular curve, according to the obliquity of the arch, and its approximation to a semicircle, and the number of divisions between h and g . The horizontal bases of the soffit joints near the abutments, on each side of the arch, are, as shewn in *fig. 4*, inclined from the line of the face towards that abutment which forms with it an *obtuse* internal angle: notwithstanding which, these joints, when drawn on the plane of the sheeting, deviate from the rectangle, with its face line *towards* the abutment which forms an *acute* internal angle with the line of the arch, and *from* the abutment on the opposite side, as shewn by those lines in *fig. 8.*

These eccentricities, although they render it difficult to form all the voissoirs prior to the commencement of the arch, are easily got over by forming them in succession, as described.

As the lines, $a\ i\ a$, $b\ z\ b$, &c. over the curve of the arch will be rather troublesome to form correctly, the best mode in practice will be to mark off on each face, and each side of the arch, a continuation of the spaces, $q\ i$ and $h\ k$, towards each abutment. Then as the progressive correspondent points from g and h , *viz.* $i\ f$, $o\ l$, &c. will have right lines between them, straight chalk-lines can easily be struck; and when the spaces, $h\ 1$, $h\ 2$, &c. are set off upon each of them, the intersecting points similar to u , v , x , &c. will be found the same as upon the lines $a\ i\ a$, $b\ z\ b$, which, therefore, have no occasion to be formed.

Had the number of divisions on the line $h\ q$ been greater, the curvature of the joint lines would have appeared more material on that side of the diagram, exhibiting a semicircular arch expanded; but on the other side, where the arch is of the flat pitch described, but with great obliquity, the deviation from right lines is so much less so, that in brick-work the joint-lines may easily be followed. In similar arcs of moderate obliquity, the divergency is of course less; but yet it will, unless the arch approach within about 20° of a rectangle with its abutments, be sufficient to occasion considerable irregularity, if the joint-lines be continued across, rectangular from either face.

We had frequent opportunities of seeing, for several years after it was built, the bridge from which most of the diagrams have been drawn, and never observed any crack in it; but yet from the uncertainty of obtaining careful and intelligent overseers, and good materials, and likewise because of the greater expence, and not having investigated the subject in all its bearings, so as to lay down sufficiently plain instructions, we did not then, in several bridges over the Grand Canal of Ireland, which we directed to be built obliquely, and in other bridges, subsequently, over wide drains in the East Riding of Yorkshire, venture to exceed 40° of obliquity, and rarely 30° , although the angle of intersection of the road and water was generally more considerable. It is clearly evident that this extent of angle would often be highly useful, as it would rarely leave much to be made up by the deviation of the road from its usual direction. The wing-walls of Finlay bridge were curved one more than the other on the same side, to give a passage along each bank of the canal; but where not over a canal, if the line of direction of the road coincide with that of the bridge, the wing-walls may terminate more nearly square with the road, or completely so, as in *fig. 9*, which shews one of these bridges under an obliquity of about 40° , with the arch *unclosed*, so as to shew the wood sheeting supporting it,

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it, and the mode of closing it without unequal pressure on each side of the centres.

From what has already been explained, it necessarily follows that each impost of the arch, in place of being simply sommered to the radiating line of the incumbent curve, must also, as appears in *fig. 3*, be ferrated (as shewn between *e* and *e*, *fig. 8.*) to suit the adjoining bed of the stones, or bricks, forming the arch.

The casual utility of these arches is obvious, and the theoretic and practical mode of forming them has been explained to such extent, as to make the process easy to any intelligent mason. Since the period we have mentioned, the plan has in a few instances been followed; and the same idea may have occurred to others, although we have never heard of it.

The principal use of these bridges will be where lines of projected canals intersect high roads with obliquity; in which case, the road, if curved for a sufficient extent to fall in with a rectangular passage over the canal in so gentle a manner as it ought, would require a considerable length of double curve, *viz.* alternately outwards and inwards on one side, or both, accordingly as the bridge might be placed, an instance of the latter of which is shewn in sketch N° 10. Under this predicament, where the land is valuable, or houses interfere to interrupt the change of road, it may often be found advantageous, because more economical to incur the increase of expence attendant on the construction of an oblique bridge; which, under moderate angles of departure from the right line across, is not very material; and where it becomes so, will sometimes be greatly inferior to the advantages acquired by it. We have been indebted for the preceding article to — Chapman, esq a well-known and ingenious engineer, to whom we have already referred under the article CANAL.

OBLIQUE Circle, in the stereographical projection of the sphere, any circle that is oblique to the plane of projection.

OBLIQUE Leaf, in Botany, is so twisted, that one part becomes vertical, while the other is horizontal. The term *obliquum* is sometimes, less correctly, applied to a leaf unequal at the base, or sides, as in *Begonia* and *Eucalyptus*; in both which it was unfortunately chosen for a specific name, being afterwards necessarily changed, when the character proved common to almost every species of those now numerous genera.

OBLIQUE Line, a line which, falling on another, makes an oblique angle.

A line falling obliquely on another makes the angle on one side obtuse, and that on the other acute.

OBLIQUE Percussion, is that wherein the direction of the striking body is not perpendicular to the body struck, or is not in a line with its centre of gravity. See PERCUSSION.

The ratio an oblique stroke bears to a perpendicular one, is demonstrated to be as the sine of the angle of incidence to the radius.

OBLIQUE Planes, in Dialling, are such as recline from the zenith, or incline towards the horizon.

The obliquity, or quantity of this inclination, or reclinatio, is easily found by a quadrant; it being an arc of some azimuth, or vertical circle, intercepted between the vertex of the place and of that plane. This azimuth, or vertical circle, is always perpendicular to the plane. See DIALLING.

OBLIQUE Powers or Forces. See MOTION, DIRECTION, &c.

OBLIQUE Projection, in Mechanics, is that where a body is impelled in a line of direction, which make an oblique angle with the horizontal line. See PROJECTION.

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OBLIQUE Sailing, in Navigation, is when the ship, being in some intermediate rhumb between the four cardinal points, makes an oblique angle with the meridian, and continually changes both its latitude and longitude.

Oblique sailing is of three kinds; viz. plain sailing, Mercator's sailing, and great circle sailing. See SAILING.

The seamen also call the application of the method of calculating the parts of oblique plain triangles, in order to find the distance of a ship from any cape, head-land, &c. by the name of oblique sailing.

OBLIQUE Sphere, in Geography, is that whose horizon cuts the equator obliquely; and one of whose poles is raised above the horizon, by an elevation equal to the latitude of the place.

It is this obliquity that occasions the inequality of days and nights.

Those who live under an oblique sphere (as we, and all those in the temperate zone, do) never have their days and equal, except in the equinoxes.

OBLIQUE Ascension, in Astronomy. See ASCENSION.

OBLIQUE Descension. See DESCENSION.

To find the oblique ascension and descension by the globe, see GLOBE.

OBLIQUE Cases, in Grammar, are all the cases of the declensions of nouns, besides the nominative. See CASE.

OBLIQUE Distillery, in Chemistry. See DISTILLATION.

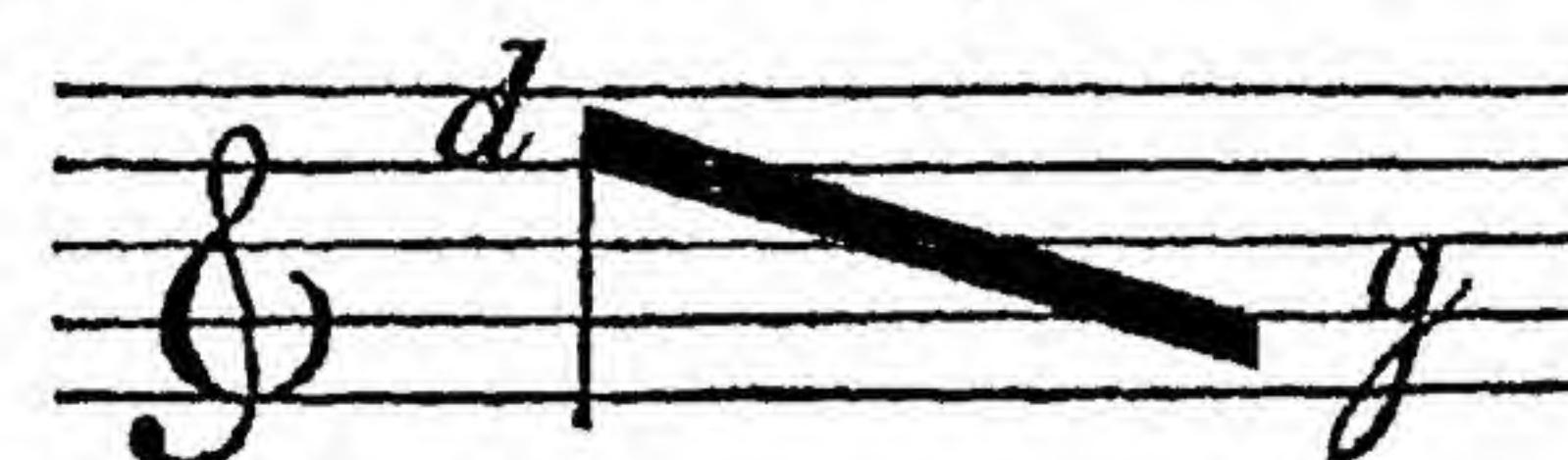
OBLIQUE Flanks, in Fortification. See FLANK.

OBLIQUITY, that which denotes a thing *oblique*.

The obliquity of the sphere is the cause of the inequality of the seasons of nights and days.

OBLIQUITY of the Ecliptic, is the angle which the ecliptic makes with the equator. See ECLIPTIC.

OBLIQUO, in the Italian Music, signifies two breves tied together, which make but one body, whence it is named in Italian *nota d'un corpo solo*; sometimes there is a tail, on the right or left side, either ascending or descending. (See NOTE and LIGATURE.) However it be, the two extremes mark the sound, the middle serves only to tie them, thus :



OBLIQUUS, in Anatomy, an epithet applied to several muscles of the human body.

The *obliqui abdominis* are two large muscles of the abdomen. As the muscles of this part are much connected together, and cannot be well understood, when described in an insulated way, we shall give an account of the whole in this article.

The fides or parietes of the abdominal cavity are composed almost entirely of muscles: the diaphragm separates it above from the chest, (see DIAPHRAGM.) and the levator ani shuts it up below (see INTESTINE). At the front and sides its boundaries are formed by the *abdominal* muscles properly so called, which fill up all the space between the inferior aperture of the chest and the superior margin of the pelvis. The contractions of these muscles change the dimensions and form of the abdomen, move the viscera in different directions, and execute many of the movements of the trunk. The details concerning these points will be found in the present article, in those just referred to, and in the article LUNGS.

The abdominal muscles are five on each side of the body: three of these are very broad, and placed in succession, one within the other, at the side of the abdomen. They end in front, in broad and thin aponeuroses or sheets of tendon, which occupy all the front of the trunk between the chest and pelvis. The formation of these muscles is therefore peculiar, and the peculiarity arises from their being placed on

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Fig. 1.

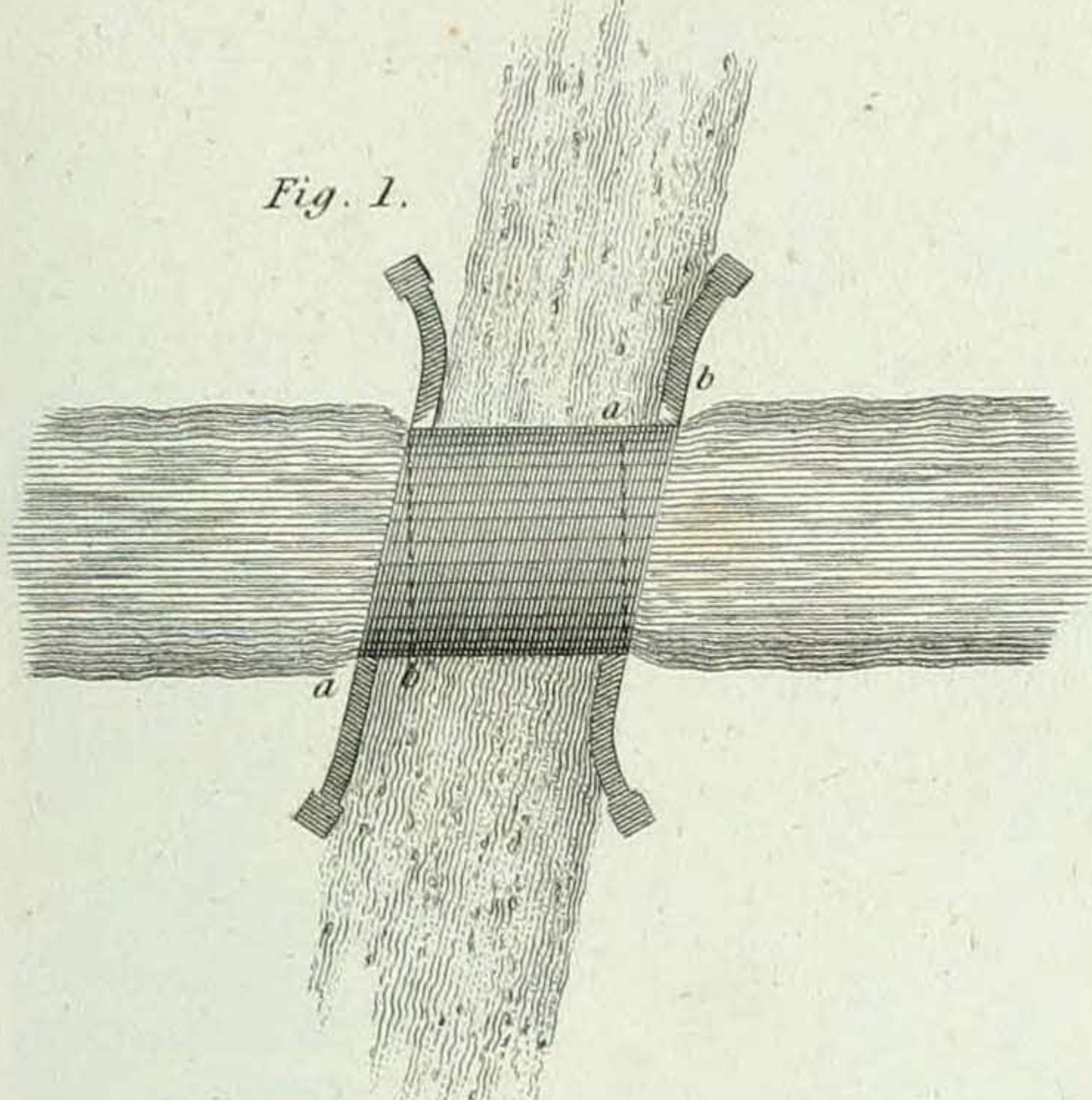


Fig. 2.

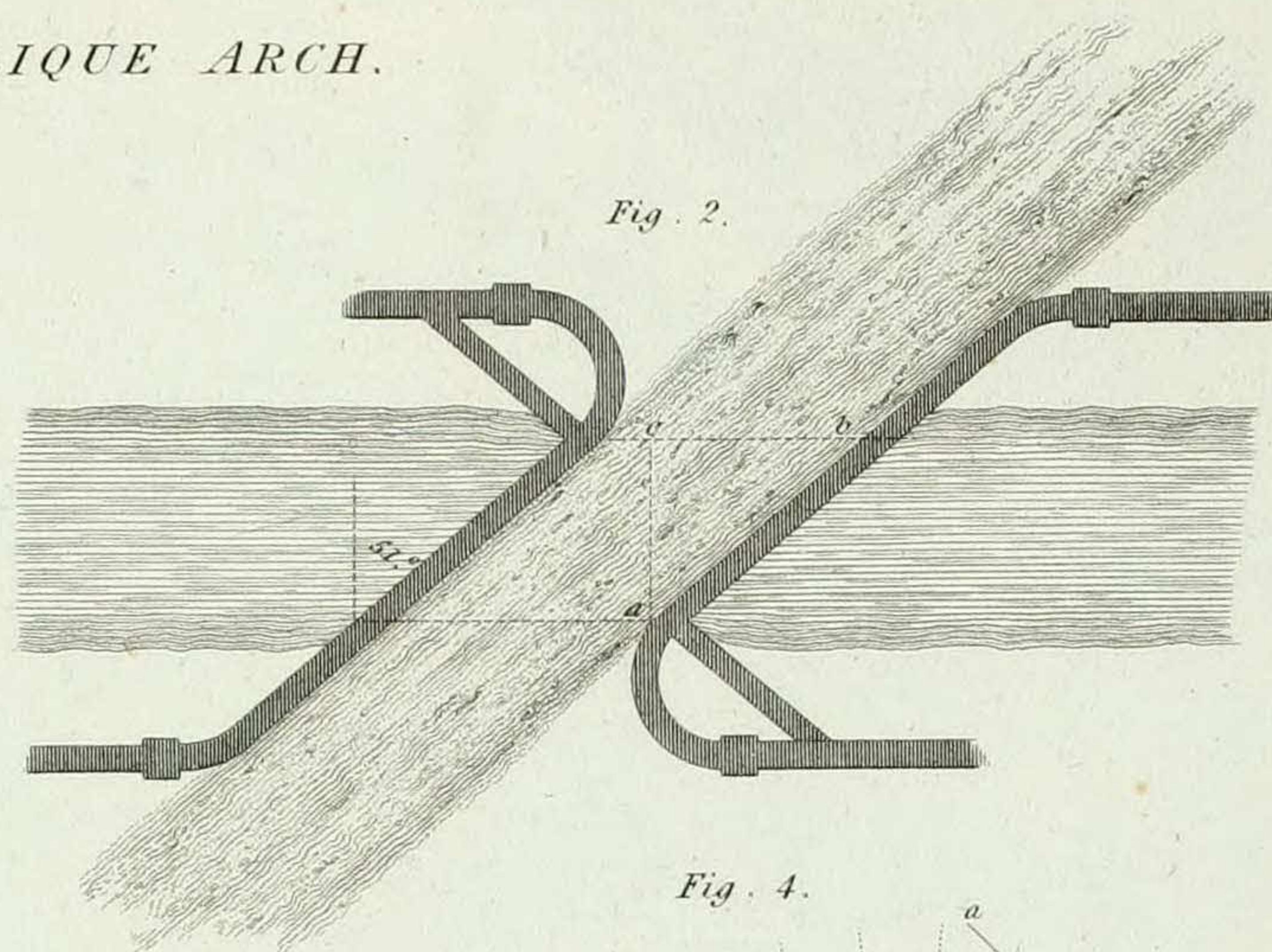


Fig. 3.

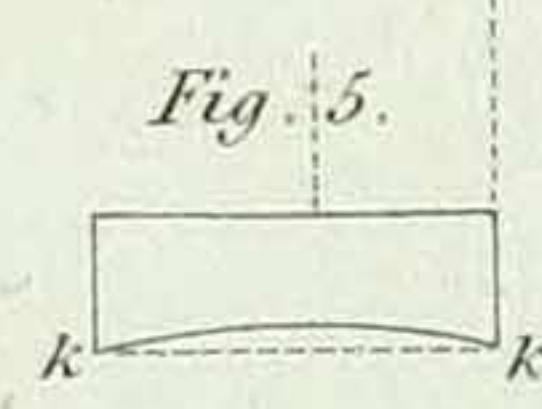
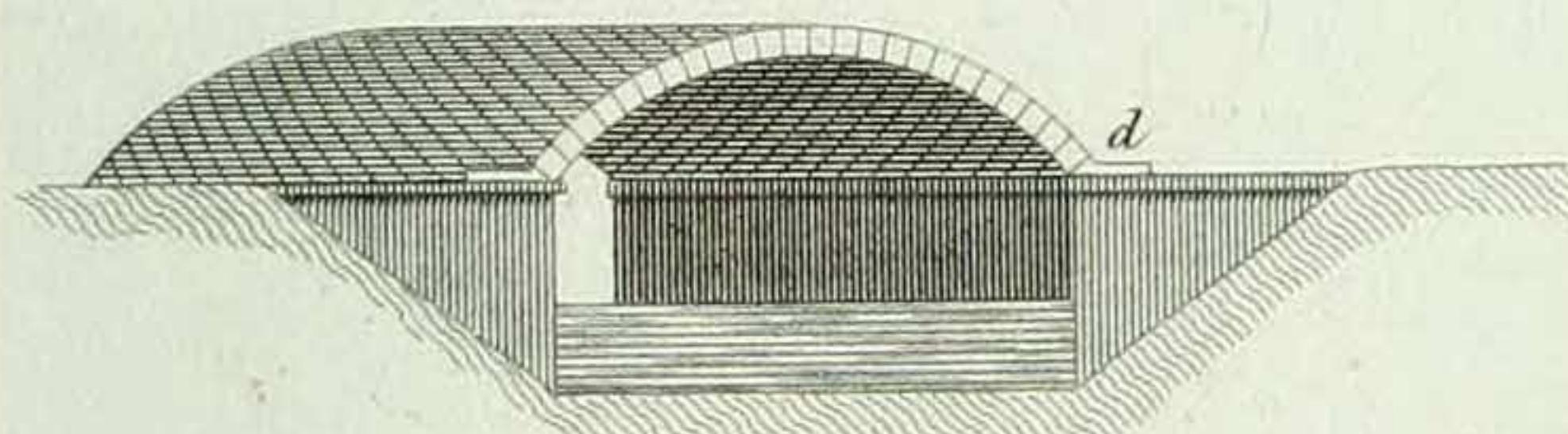


Fig. 4.

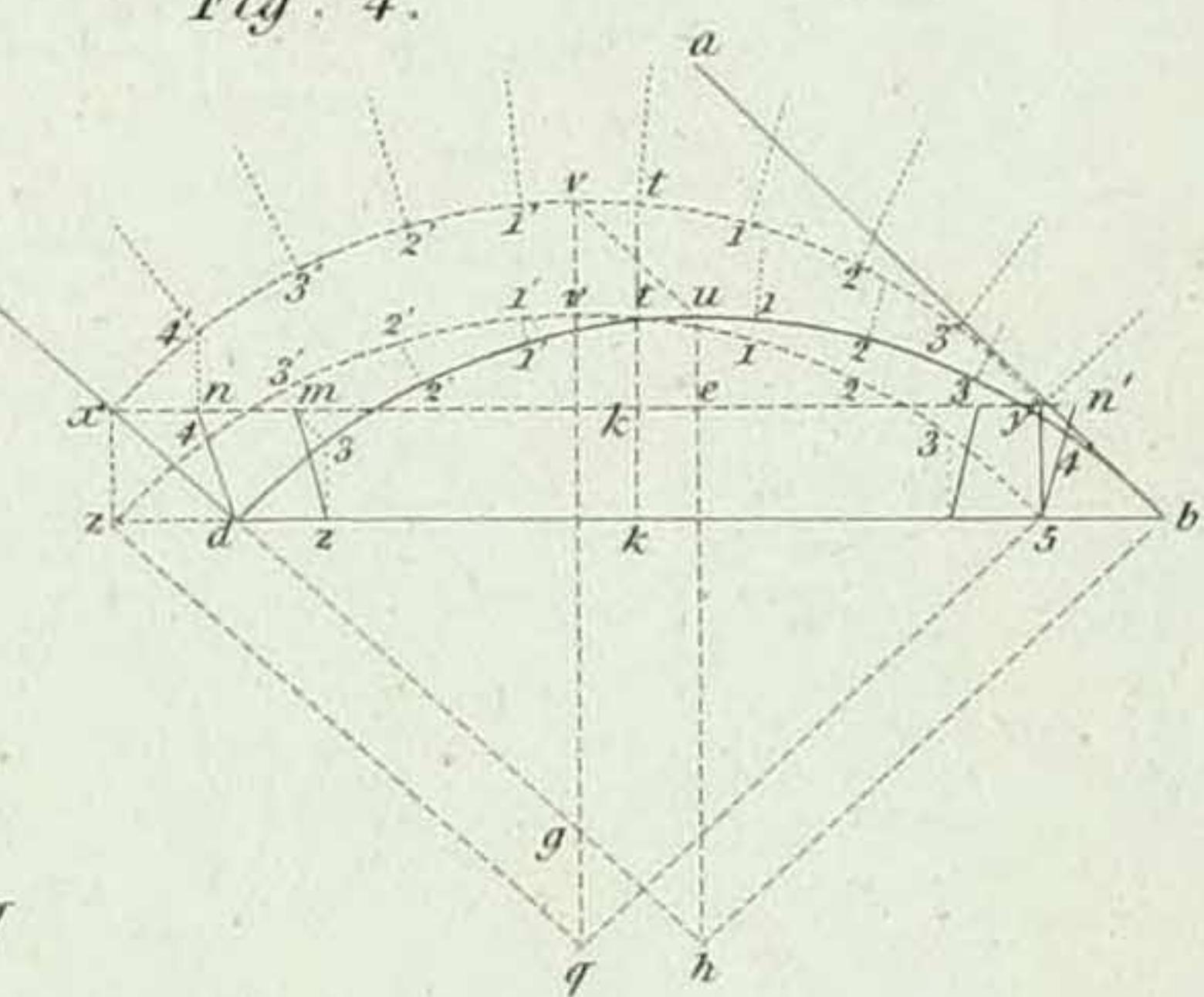


Fig. 7.

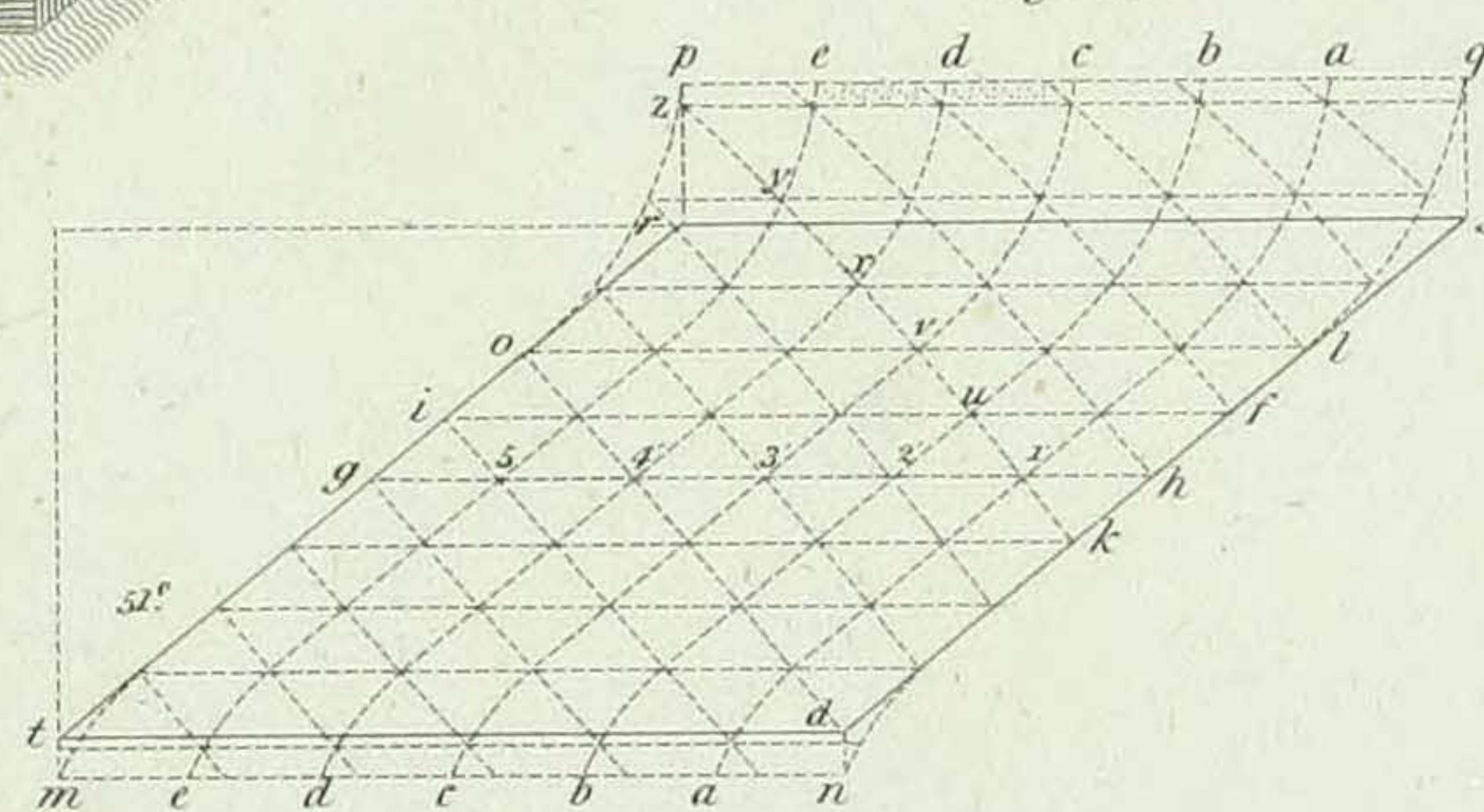
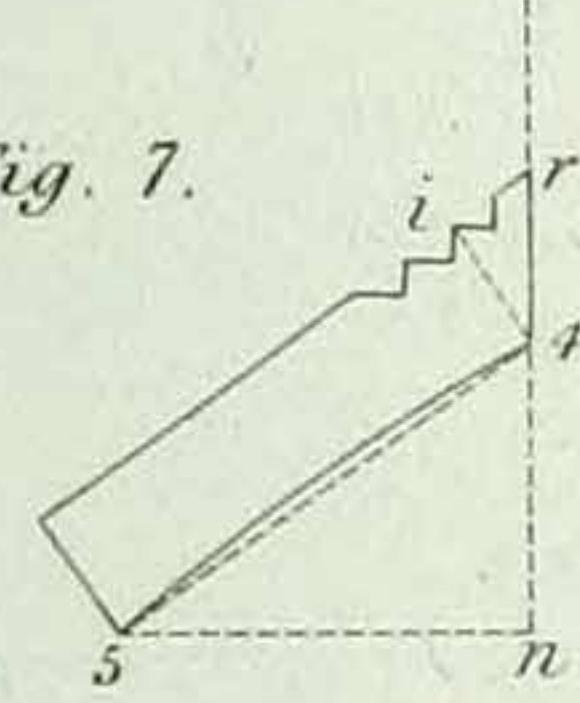


Fig. 6.

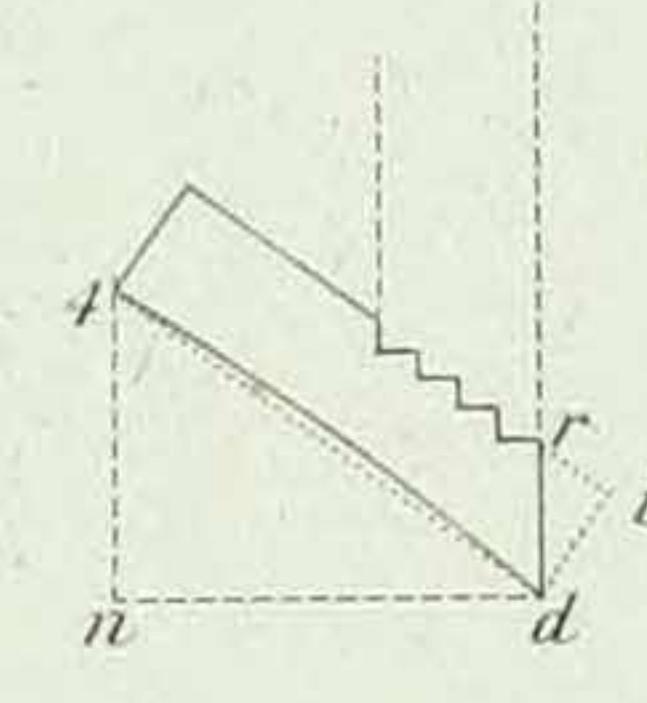


Fig. 9.

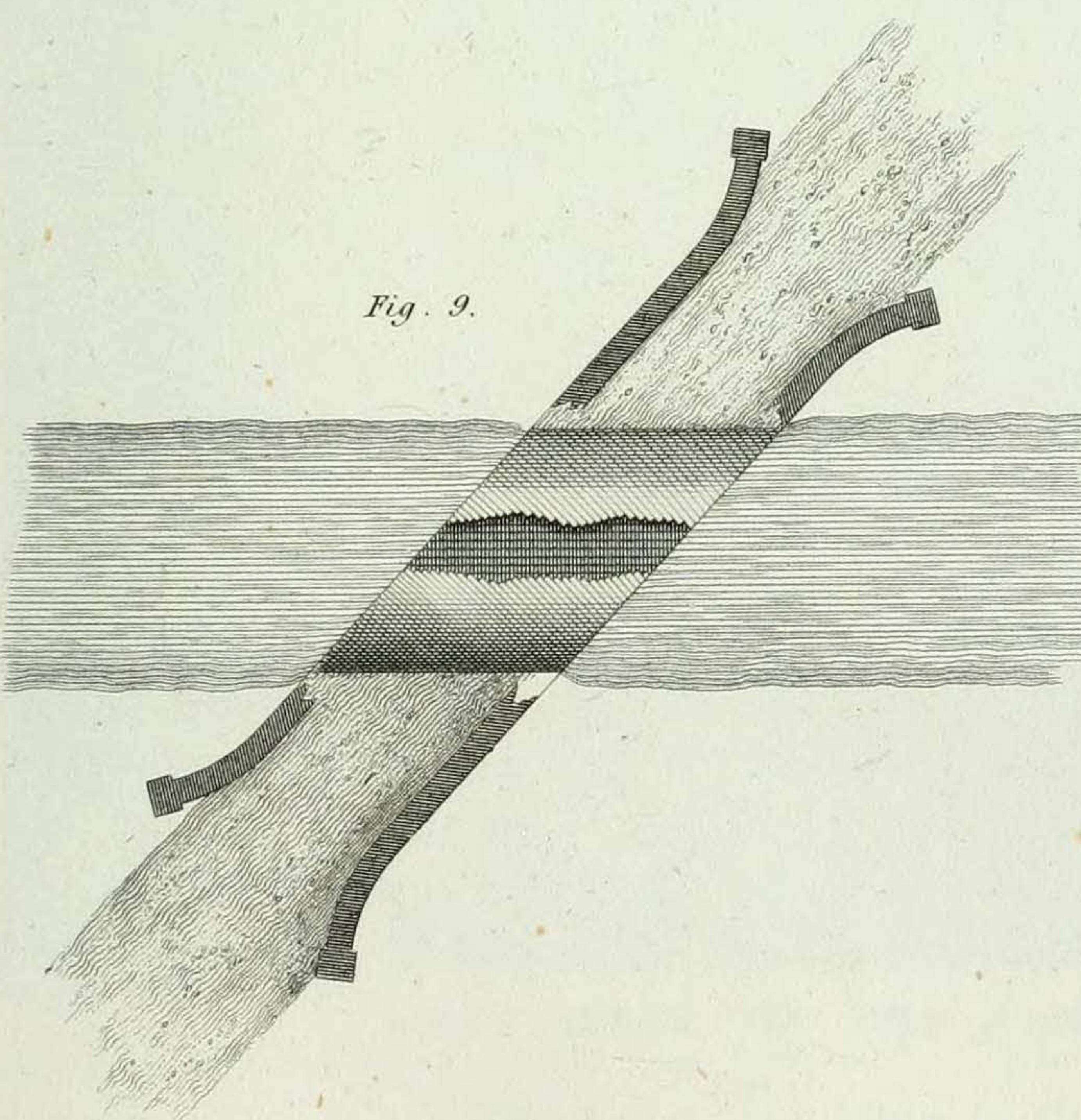


Fig. 10.

